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ABSTRACT

This document contains three papers from a symposium on learning at the top that was conducted as part of a conference on human resource development (HRD). "Learning at the Top: An Investigation of Nonprofit CEOs' (Chief Executive Officers') Learning Experiences" (John J. Sherlock) reports on a study that used Mezirow's theory of adult learning as a framework to study the content and processes of CEOs' learning and yielded evidence that both the content and processes of CEO learning are deeply impacted by the politically charged context in which nonprofit CEOs must perform. "The Awareness and Utilization of Emotional Intelligence in Leadership Development as Perceived by HRD Practitioners in the Kansas City ASTD (American Society of Training and Development) Chapter" (Joseph Nantawut Leeamornsiri, Robert C. Schwindt) summarizes a study of the HRD practitioners' and organizational managers' awareness of emotional intelligence, the perceived benefits of the use of emotional intelligence competencies, and the emphasis put on core emotional intelligence competencies in leadership and management development activities. "Moving HRD beyond 'Paint by Numbers': Aesthetic Epistemology and Arts-Based Learning in Management Education" (Nick Nissley) describes how aesthetic ways of knowing and arts-based learning is informing the practice of management education. All three papers include substantial bibliographies. (MN)

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Learning at the Top: An Investigation of Nonprofit CEOs' Learning Experiences

John J. Sherlock
University of Maryland University College

This study explored the learning experiences of nonprofit CEOs. Mezirow's theory of adult learning was used as a framework of inquiry. While the CEO's "professional context" is considered unique from other executive positions, it was unclear how that unique context might impact CEOs' learning. The findings suggest that both the content and the processes of CEO learning are impacted in profound ways by the politically-charged context in which the nonprofit CEO must perform.

Keywords: CEOs, Nonprofit Context, Adult Learning

Executives in organizations are striving to help their organizations succeed amidst increased competition, rapid change, and increased environmental ambiguity (Kotter, 1988; Vaill, 1996). A characteristic identified in the research of executives who prosper during challenging times is the ability to learn from experience (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Dechant, 1990; Hall, 1986; Kaplan, Drath, & Kofodimos, 1987; Kolb, 1976; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). These studies, however, have focused primarily on senior executives, not the CEO. Yet, there is considerable support for the assertion that an organization's chief executive (CEO) plays a key and unique role in an organization's success (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Jaques & Clement, 1991; Kaplan et al., 1987; Yukl, 1999). Further, several researchers have found that CEOs' ongoing learning is important to their success and their organizations (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Goldsmith, 1996; Margerison & Kakabadse, 1984; Pincus & DeBonis, 1994; Senge, 1990).

This lack of understanding of how CEOs learn has negative workplace implications for both CEOs and the organizations they serve. It produces an information void for both the CEO seeking self-development, as well as executive development practitioners who seek to facilitate CEO development in both current CEOs and potential successors. This paper describes research that explored the learning experiences of nonprofit CEOs incorporating an adult learning theory as a framework of inquiry. The next section begins by reviewing the literature addressing the uniqueness of the CEO context , as well as particular aspects of the nonprofit CEO context. The section concludes with a description of Mezirow's adult learning theory.

Uniqueness of the CEO Context

"Professional context" was operationalized for this study to mean serving as CEO in a nonprofit association. An individual's professional context is an important dimension of one's overall context, defined in the adult learning research as the personal and sociocultural factors that play an influencing role in the process of learning (Clark & Wilson, 1991; Sveinunggaard, 1993; Taylor, 1997). Serving as CEO in an organization, it is asserted, constitutes a professional context that is unique from serving in any other executive capacity. The CEO, as the highest ranking staff member in an organization, has the highest level of staff accountability for achieving organizational goals. Additionally, while non-CEO executives often have significant responsibilities in an organization, non-CEO positions do not match the breadth of the CEO position (Pincus & DeBonis, 1994; Sonnenfeld, 1988; Yukl, 1999). The uniqueness of the CEO's responsibility and accountability for the organization's performance produces unique power dynamics between: 1) The CEO and the staff reporting to him/her; and 2) The CEO and the Board of Directors to whom the CEO reports.

CEO-Staff Power Dynamic. As the highest-ranking individual in an organization, the CEO operates in a professional context where the power associated with their position influences the majority of their interactions with staff. Power is defined for the purposes of this study as the capacity to affect organizational outcomes (Mintzberg, 1983). Daily & Johnson (1997) assert that while top management teams clearly have organizational influence, the CEO "occupies a position of unique influence in the firm" (p.98). Mintzberg (1983) draws a similar conclusion in stating that while managers who report directly to the CEO may be the second most powerful influences in the organization, they are a "distant second" (p.126). When the CEO talks, employees have good reason to listen. Even the CEO who has little interest in exercising power cannot avoid the power issues inherent in the CEO

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position. The result of the CEO possessing this degree of power is that it has real or perceived effects on the CEO-staff relationship and creates a unique context in which the CEO must learn how to perform.

CEO-Board Power Dynamic. A CEO's unique context is perhaps most exemplified in the reporting relationship to the board. Prior to becoming a CEO, the senior executive typically reports to a single supervisor who is an employee of the organization. In sharp contrast, the CEO reports to a board of directors made up of individuals who are generally not employees of the organization. The concept of a governing board is used in almost all complex organizations, from welfare agencies and private schools, to hospitals and for-profit and nonprofit organizations (Mintzberg, 1983). While the board generally has the authority to remove a CEO, whether that occurs is often a function of influence, relationships, perceptions about performance, and political action (Alexander, Fennell, & Halpern, 1993; Fredrickson, Hambrick, & Baumrin, 1988; Weisbach, 1988).

The CEOs in this study were all CEOs of nonprofit associations. While nonprofit association structures are like many for-profit organizations where the CEO reports to a board of directors representing the "owners," the limited research in this field suggests that the power dynamics between the nonprofit CEO and his/her board is even more intense (Mintzberg, 1983; Wood, 1996; Zald, 1965). Nonprofit associations, characterized by ever-changing volunteer board members and the lack of a primary profit motive like for-profit entities, often have decisions being guided by politics and personalities. How CEOs perceive and describe their learning experiences in this unique context was the purpose of this phenomenological study.

Mezirow's Theory of Adult Learning and Context

Mezirow's (1981) theory of adult learning was used as a framework of inquiry to explore the CEO learning phenomenon from an adult learning perspective. Mezirow's adult learning theory focuses on construing meaning from experience as a guide to action. His concepts of learning are unique when compared to other theories of adult learning due, in part, to the complexity, multiple levels of learning, and integrated system of knowledge presented (Clark & Wilson, 1991). Below is a brief description of the key concepts of his theory.

Ways of Making Meaning. Mezirow describes learning as occurring within two domains: The meaning scheme and the meaning perspective. Meaning schemes are particular beliefs, value judgments, and attitudes. They are a more specific dimension of one's broader frame of reference or meaning perspective. A meaning perspective is comprised of clusters of meaning schemes. A meaning perspective is a broad frame of reference adults use to make meaning of the world and does not change often. Mezirow refers to a change in meaning perspective as a perspective transformation. Mezirow distinguishes between learning to manipulate the environment ("instrumental learning") and learning to understand what others mean ("communicative learning"). He points out that adult learning often involves both instrumental and communicative learning types of learning.

Role of Reflection. Mezirow regards reflection as an essential element of his adult learning theory. He emphasizes that individuals must critically reflect on the premises of their beliefs as part of the process to validate, modify, or transform them. For Mezirow, all reflection should involve a critique. Mezirow states that reflection is not the same as introspection. He argues that introspection refers to simply becoming aware of the fact that we are perceiving, thinking, feeling, or acting in a certain way. Reflection by an individual, Mezirow asserts, goes beyond awareness and involves a critique of assumptions to determine whether a belief, often acquired through cultural assimilation in childhood, remains functional for the individual as an adult. He adds that most reflection occurs during problem solving and that the most powerful learning occurs when adults reflect not on the content of the problem or the process involved in solving it, but on the premise underlying the problem.

Role of Discourse. His theory of adult learning also emphasizes the importance of discourse to making meaning. Mezirow's thinking on the rational discourse is based in part on the notion of rationality of Habermas (1971). Mezirow (1991) describes Habermas' thinking about rationality as the "the process of achieving mutual understanding by active participation in advancing and objectively weighing evidence and assessing the cogency of supporting arguments" (p.26). Mezirow's concept of rational discourse has a number of ideal conditions, including that participants have accurate and complete information, are free from coercion, are open to alternative points of view, and are willing to accept a resulting best judgment. His emphasis on rationality in discourse has been criticized (Clark & Wilson, 1991; Cranton, 1994) for pursuing what is unattainable and for not acknowledging other ways of reaching understanding. Mezirow acknowledges that such conditions are difficult to attain but maintains that they are the conditions under which learning can best occur.

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Role of Context. Mezirow asserts that learning can only be understood as situated in a specific cultural context. However, researchers of Mezirow's theory have suggested that the role of contextual factors in Mezirow's theory be explored further (Clark & Wilson, 1991; Taylor, 1997). This study, thus, not only provided a useful framework of inquiry into the phenomenon of CEO learning, but also served to develop further the role of context in Mezirow's theory.

Research Question

Using Mezirow's theory of adult learning as a framework for inquiry, how do CEOs perceive and describe their learning experiences?

Method

This study employed a phenomenological research design to explore how CEOs perceive and describe their learning in the CEO context. There are various techniques and variations of method within phenomenology, but all the approaches have certain commonalties (Sanders, 1982). They all are based on the premise that, for any phenomenon, there is a common underlying structure or "essence" which can be explicated fom individual descriptions of those experiencing the phenomenon (Creswell, 1998).

Data Collection. This study utilized Seidman's (1998) in-depth interview method as the primary data collection technique. Seidman's philosophy regarding interviewing is phenomenological in its orientation and consistent with this study's approach. Perhaps most distinguishing of all its features, Seidman's interviewing model involves conducting a series of three separate ninety-minute interviews with each participant. The initial interview created a historical context of the participants' learning experiences through reconstructing and describing past learning experiences up to becoming a CEO. The second interview allowed the participants to reflect on their learning experiences as CEO. The third interview was structured to allow participants the opportunity to reflect on the meaning of their learning experiences and to consider the implications of those meanings. During this third interview, CEOs were invited to reflect further on the differences between their CEO and pre-CEO learning experiences and the perceived influence of the CEO professional context on their learning. Seidman's (1998) suggestion that phenomenological interviewers use primarily open-ended questions was followed in this study. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim. Nearly 3,000 pages of interview transcripts were generated.

Sample. This study included a sample of twelve CEOs of nonprofit associations. Despite the significant economic impact of associations nationwide, little formal research has been conducted on association executive learning. The researchers' knowledge of and work experience with nonprofits was helpful in overcoming the typical challenges associated with gaining research access to "business elites" who serve as CEOs of their associations (Dexter, 1970). The sample was limited to individuals who had been CEOs of associations for no less than two years but no longer than seven years. These parameters on CEO experience were chosen based on comments from an expert sampling of CEOs who suggested that the time span of 27 years would be appropriate, from the perspective of both sufficient time in the job to be "settled" and recent enough CEO experience to be recalled. The final sample included eight men and four women, one of whom was a minority. This mix of gender and ethnicity closely reflects the association CEO gender and ethnic profile within the United States (ASAE, 1997).

Data Analysis. Because the research question invites analysis in two domains, executive development and adult learning, two sets of data analyses were utilized to promote the clearest understanding of the phenomenon. First, the study examined the influence of professional context on CEO learning experiences using Mezirow's (1991) theory of adult learning as a framework of inquiry. Coding and thematic analysis techniques (Patton, 1990) were used to analyze the influence of the CEOs' unique professional context on key dimensions of Mezirow's learning theory. Then, employing an inductive approach, the researcher used Moustakas' (1994) method of analysis of phenomenological data to develop a composite textural-structural description, or "essence," of the learning experiences of the twelve CEOs studied. The method places an emphasis on the researcher first reflecting on their own experience with the phenomenon and striving to bracket out any biases (referred to as the "epoche" process) prior to analysis of participants' data. Following the epoche process, the researcher engaged in the following phenomenological data analysis steps:

1. Considered each statement in a CEO Participant's interview transcript with respect to significance for the description of the phenomenon of nonprofit CEO learning (i.e., "horizonalization").

2. Formulated "invariant meaning horizons" by explicating the meaning of relevant statements. These invariant horizons point to the unique qualities of the CEO learning experience.
3. Related and clustered the invariant meaning horizons into themes of CEO learning.
4. Synthesized the invariant meaning horizons and themes of CEO learning into descriptions of the "textures" of the learning experiences for the CEO participants. The textural description ("noema") is often referred to as the "what" of the phenomenon.
5. Through phenomenological techniques of "imaginative variation," constructed the structural descriptions of the experience. The structural description ("noesis") is often referred to as the "how" of the phenomenon.
6. From the textural and structural descriptions of the participants' learning experiences, constructed a composite textural-structural description of the meanings and essences of CEO learning. This step integrates all of the other steps in the phenomenological process to produce a universal description ("essence") of the learning experiences representing the group of CEOs as a whole.

This use of two analysis types made it possible to add to our understanding of the two theoretical areas of adult learning and executive development.

Limitations. This study was based on a small sample of nonprofit association CEOs, and, therefore, the scope of the study is limited and may not be transferable. Further, the study is limited in that it relies on the willingness and ability of the participants to discuss their personal learning experiences. Efforts were made to address this limitation by conducting three ninety minute interviews, which provided considerable face-to-face time to establish not only rapport, but also a high level of comfort with the researcher and the subject matter being discussed.

Trustworthiness. Lincoln & Guba (1985) assert that the qualitative researcher can enhance the trustworthiness of the study within the process of inquiry itself. This includes researcher actions to produce "prolonged engagement" and "persistent observation" so that the most relevant factors become apparent. Seidman's (1998) in-depth phenomenological interview method, involving three separate ninety-minute in-person interviews, provided the researcher with the opportunity for both prolonged engagement and persistent observation. Moustakas (1994) also suggests enhancing trustworthiness by utilizing participant-feedback. This procedure involves the researcher sending to participants copies of the textural-structural descriptions of their experience and the group's experience as a means of validating the data. The twelve CEOs in this study each received the textural-structural description of their individual learning experiences, as well as the synthesis description of CEO learning, and were asked for any corrections or additions. This approach is also consistent with the suggestion of "member checking" suggested by Lincoln & Guba (1985 p.313-314).

Findings and Discussion

The results of this study are presented in two parts: 1) The findings of the thematic analysis using Mezirow's theory of adult learning; and 2) The findings of the phenomenological data analysis.

Thematic Analysis using Mezirow's Theory

Nine themes emerged from the data analysis using Mezirow's theory of adult learning as a framework of inquiry. Each theme is briefly discussed.

Theme One. Power Dynamics Permeate the CEOs' Environment. This theme has two distinct parts, reflecting the two primary CEO relationships: 1) The CEO-Staff power dynamic; and 2) The CEO-Board power dynamic. Underlying both of these relationships was the CEOs' strong sense of vulnerability and a belief that there are many constituencies to please. Two critical elements of Mezirow's theory, discourse and communicative learning (a type of learning), are directly influenced by these power imbalances with the staff and board. In order for discourse to occur, Mezirow (1991) asserts there must be "free and open exchange" and equal power, yet it is clear that neither is present within the context of CEO relationships at work. Additionally, communicative learning involves learning to understand what other people really mean. With the "cleaned" language phenomenon so prevalent in the CEOs' interactions ("political correctness"), communicative learning is clearly impacted.

Theme Two. Learning How to Navigate the Political Process. The CEOs' recognition that they had so many, often conflicting, expectations placed on them resulted in a focused effort to figure out how to manage the political processes to their advantage. Consistent with Mezirow's theory of adult learning, evidences of both instrumental and communicative learning were apparent in the CEOs' descriptions of their learning about how to navigate the political processes inherent in the CEO position.

Theme Three. Learning About Self. Mezirow (1981) has suggested that the most profound learning often involves learning about one's identity and self-concept. He makes the point that such learning often occurs while trying to learn about something else. The CEO environment, with its continuous pressure on the CEOs to meet the boards' often-subjective expectations, tested the self-confidence of the CEOs and triggered self-reflection and learning about self.

Theme Four. Reflection a More Prevalent Learning Process. The CEOs in the study indicated that reflection had become a more prevalent learning process for them since being a CEO. The lack of opportunities for CEOs to have meaningful discourse clearly contributed to the increased use of reflection; however, it is also the CEOs' feeling of vulnerability with the board that triggers the CEOs' frequent reflection on their performance. It is unclear whether any of the ways in which the CEOs' described that they reflect constitute "critical reflection" as Mezirow's learning theory asserts is necessary. The reflective process described by CEOs seemed to be less of a critique of assumptions, as Mezirow suggests, and more of a mental replaying of events in hopes of improved future performance.

Theme Five. Learning More Difficult in the CEO Role. The majority of CEOs commented that they found learning in the CEO role to be harder than in pre-CEO positions. The challenges nonprofit association CEOs face often involve people and relationships, with no one right answer and a lack of people with whom to discuss the challenges. The CEOs' perception that this contributes to learning being more difficult is consistent with Mezirow's (1981) assertion that learning to understand what other people mean (communicative knowledge) can be particularly difficult because of the lack of empirical methods to determine truth.

Theme Six. Discourse More Difficult in the CEO Role. As was noted in the earlier themes, CEOs felt that having productive discourse was more difficult to attain in the CEO position than when they were in non-CEO positions. The power dynamic between the CEOs and both their staff and their board acted as a significant impediment to discourse in the minds of the CEOs in the study. The discourse the CEOs in the study did seek out, however, was discourse with their spouses.

Theme Seven. Spouse as Resource for Discourse and Learning. Mezirow (1994) describes learning as a social process. He asserts that meaning made by an individual must be validated through discourse with others. Overall, the comments suggest that the spouse was a valued resource in part because they provided a "safe" environment where the CEO could think through issues without undesirable consequences. The findings also suggest, however, that this CEO-spouse discourse does not meet the conditions for "rational discourse" that Mezirow asserts is necessary for learning as defined by his theory.

Theme Eight. Triggering Events Often Mistakes or Adversity. Mezirow (1994) suggests that the triggering events that produce the most learning are often emotionally unpleasant and even painful. This study's findings suggest the CEO context provides fertile ground for such triggers. CEOs perceive that the context in which they operate is one of intense political pressure, where there are no guaranteed formulas for success, and where a CEO's action on a given item may please a group of board members but displease another group. The CEOs, when asked about how they most often learned, mentioned making mistakes, and then learning from those mistakes.

Theme Nine. Degree of Change Varied among CEOs. Mezirow (1991) indicates that individuals rarely transform their "meaning perspectives" and that most learning occurs by through validating or expanding existing "meaning schemes." The data suggests that some CEOs experienced learning at the "schema" level, while others described learning that could represent changes in meaning perspectives. The most transformative learning experiences described focused on learning about self.

Phenomenological Data Analysis

The product of this study's phenomenological data analysis is the textural-structural description or "essence" of the phenomenon of nonprofit association CEO learning. That description was developed within the phenomenological tradition by systematically building on the findings from each step of phenomenological data analysis summarized earlier. The process required a careful working through and imaginative testing of various descriptions of an essence until the essential elements and their relationship were differentiated from the unessential and particular (Polkinghorne, 1989). The twelve CEOs in this study each received the textural-structural description, or "essence," of the phenomenon of CEO learning as explicated from the group of twelve CEOs. The comments received from the CEOs supported the textural-structural synthesis of CEO learning developed.

Textural-Structural Synthesis("Essence"): CEO Learning Experiences. Nonprofit association CEOs' learning experiences are shaped by power dynamics that permeate fundamental dimensions of their job environment. These dynamics drive to a large extent both "what" they learn and "how" they learn. CEOs learn that the power they have

over the staff is inescapable. They learn through reflecting on experience the limits in establishing "peer" relationships with staff. Once these limits are learned by the CEOs, the CEOs turn their learning focus to how to manage this power. They learn to be more calculated with their words and actions to minimize being misinterpreted by staff, as well as to create an environment where they are not being told what staff thinks the CEO wants to hear.

Association CEOs learn that the CEO role produces an intense feeling of responsibility and accountability. This personal learning also includes varying levels of vulnerability as CEOs learn that working with, but also "reporting to," a frequently changing board of volunteers is a socio-political challenge beyond what they had anticipated. This learning usually occurs through trial and error experiences with individual board members and the collective board. The CEOs learn that they are the point person responsible for meeting, or at minimum, managing, the multiple self-interests of these many "bosses"— in addition to achieving the stated association interests. The power of the board to remove the CEO is ever present in the mind of these association CEOs. This learning focus on the board is ongoing as positions of power change in the association and new board members are elected. The CEOs' learning becomes focused on achieving desired outcomes while avoiding "excessive vulnerability." This involves learning, primarily through listening and observation, to understand the actual, not prescribed, decision-making process of the board. It also involves learning to understand individual board members' needs and desires and their individual power within the group, as well as learning how to influence both the people and the process to achieve desired outcomes. This learning occurs primarily through trial and error and reflecting on those experiences.

CEOs utilize reflection for learning more than in other positions. Due to the particular power dynamics that exist with the staff and the board, CEOs learn that the CEO role often produces feelings of isolation and loneliness. The absence of "peers" with whom to have candid dialogue makes reflection a more common learning practice. Additionally, CEOs perceive the issues they must address with the staff, the board, and their marketplace to be broader and more complex than other jobs which requires reflection in order to learn. The CEOs with spouses have learned to appreciate and to leverage their spouses as safe and valuable resources for dialogue and reflection.

CEOs view learning as important to success. They view the learning needed to succeed in the CEO role to be much more focused on people than facts. They have learned that this is often harder learning and that they must seek out their own learning. Learning in the CEO role also includes unplanned learning about self, particularly about their personal values. While books, seminars, and networking can occasionally be helpful in the learning process to CEOs, trial and error with real experience is where the learning predominantly occurs.

Implications for HRD Research and Practice

While organizations spend millions of dollars annually on executive development, the focus is almost exclusively on managers and non-CEO executives. The CEO is basically on his/her own in regard to their development (Horton, 1992). This study's focus, specifically on CEOs, helped to inform the field of HRD from both a theoretical and practical perspective about how CEOs learn within the professional context of being their organization's chief executive. Given the study's interest in exploring executive development from an adult learning perspective, employing a comprehensive learning theory such as Mezirow's served this research purpose effectively. Below is a brief discussion of the implications for both HRD research and practice.

Implications for HRD Research. The influence of the CEO context so strongly influences the CEOs' learning experiences that the managerial and executive learning research provides little insight on the learning of CEOs. This conclusion about the profound impact of professional context on learning is consistent with the findings of Clark (1991) who found that context was "more than incidental to the learning process, but was directive and determinative of the learning" (p.98). While this study has helped to address this gap in the literature by exploring the learning experiences of nonprofit association CEOs, additional focused research on CEOs is warranted.

The increased use of reflection and decreased use of discourse provide new insights into how context impacts learning processes in Mezirow's theory. Mezirow (1998) asserts that context is central to learning in his theory, but there is a need to develop more fully the linkage between context and the processes of adult learning. In particular, the reflective learning practices used by the CEOs in this study seem to be less of a critique, less judgmental, than Mezirow suggests. Thus, Mezirow's assertion that vigorous critique is an essential component of reflection is questionable based on this study. Given that reflection was not the focus of this study, this conclusion suggests that further research that focuses on CEOs' reflective practices is warranted. Specifically, it is recommended that the concept of reflection v. critical reflection be explored to better understand the nuances of reflection and their impact on the learning process and outcomes. The research methodology could include asking CEOs to maintain daily or weekly journals so that data on the CEOs' reflective practices might be more closely linked to recent events and/or

actions. Additionally, the discourse that CEOs described as helpful in their learning (often with their spouse) did not appear to be "rational" discourse that Mezirow asserts is necessary for learning to occur. It is recommended that this element of Mezirow's adult learning theory also be explored in more depth by studying CEOs' discourse exclusively. Descriptions of discourse from both the CEOs and those with whom the CEOs spoke could provide data leading to a better understanding of the degree to which the discourses met (or failed to meet) the conditions of "rational" discourse asserted by Mezirow.

This study explored the learning experiences of CEOs with at least two years' experience but no more than seven years' experience as CEO. It would be helpful to compare the findings of this study with the learning experiences of seasoned CEOs. A study of CEOs with, for example, at least fifteen years of CEO experience could provide helpful insights as to whether the political elements of the job are related to length of time as CEO. Additionally, while this study focused on the learning experiences of nonprofit association CEOs, it would be interesting to replicate this study with other types of nonprofit organizations, such as foundations, philanthropic and social welfare organizations and compare the findings.

Implications for HRD Practice. One disturbing conclusion of this study is the tendency for nonprofit association CEOs to become so self-absorbed amid the political intensity of their context that they fail to act on learning that could help their organizations. This conclusion is made based on the fact, that when CEOs were asked to share their significant learning experiences in the CEO role, the stories shared were predominantly about navigating the political process with the board and avoiding political trouble that could put their jobs at risk. HRD must provide mechanisms for CEO development that address the unique pressures of the CEO context.

HRD practitioners can assist CEOs, and aspiring CEOs, in their development by first informing them about the unique aspects of learning in the CEO context and how this will influence, among other things, their access to information, their learning, and ultimately, their capacity to act. Once CEOs become aware of how their context influences what and how they learn, HRD practitioners can focus on development of CEO learning processes and content that address their unique context. It is asserted that CEO development will be most effective if HRD practitioners can develop executive coaching relationships with CEOs or aspiring CEOs. As this study clearly showed, CEOs feel isolated and an effective executive coach could serve as a valuable learning resource to a CEO. Among the areas of focus for the executive coach working with the CEO is development of skills for operating in political environments, development of influencing skills, and development of reflective practice.

Conclusion

The powerful influence of the nonprofit association CEO context on CEO learning was clearly evident in both the phenomenological method of data analysis and the thematic data analysis using Mezirow's theory as framework of inquiry. Both forms of analysis produced important insights into not only what CEOs learn and how they learn, but also the impact of context on CEOs' acting on that learning. This research is significant in that it has addressed an important gap in our understanding of HRD at the CEO level by focusing on the learning experiences of CEOs specifically. It also addressed a gap in the research of Mezirow's adult learning theory by providing new insights on the role of context on key concepts of his theory. Finally, this research began to provide a bridge between the research in adult learning and HRD that benefits both fields of study. As the CEOs' in this study asserted, learning is key to CEOs' leading their organizations, and our better understanding of the phenomenon of CEO learning will ideally translate into increased success for both the CEOs and their organizations.

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The Awareness and Utilization of Emotional Intelligence in Leadership Development as Perceived by HRD Practitioners in the Kansas City ASTD Chapter

Joseph Nantawut Leeamornsiri
Robert C. Schwindt
Pittsburg State University

The utilization of emotional intelligence (EI) concepts in the leadership and management development activities of organization in the Kansas City metropolitan area was investigated. Data was gathered and analyzed related to the awareness of EI by HRD practitioners and organizational managers, the perceived benefits of the use of EI competencies, the emphasis put on the core EI competencies in leadership and management development activities, and the perceive emphasis put on the application of EI competencies.

Key words: Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Development

Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence,* published in 1995, was widely read. "We are being judged by a new yard stick not just how smart we are, by our training and expertise, but also by how well we handle ourselves and others" (Goleman, 1998, p.1). Mayer and Salovey revised their definition of emotional intelligence in 1997 to include "the ability to perceive oneself and other things accurately, the ability to appraise and express emotions appropriately, the ability to generate and access emotions which facilitate thought, the ability to understand emotion and knowledge, and the ability to regulate emotions to improve emotional and intellectually growth" (Salovey & Mayer, 1998, p.81).

The concept of emotional intelligence has become widely known and accepted in business and industry. Emotional intelligence includes the basic personal qualities of, emotional maturity, self-confidence, self-awareness, personal integrity, and the knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses. Emotional Intelligence is the capacity for recognizing one's own feelings and those of others, for motivating, managing, and developing (Cherniss, 2000).

Emotional intelligence is very important to HRD practitioners, and it is important for the HRD practitioner to understand the concept, the related values and competencies, and to be aware of the theory and the research on which it is based. This research study describes how HRD leadership development practitioners perceive emotional intelligence, and the perceived benefits related to work environment, performance, and productivity.

Problem Statement

Current literature indicates the success of leaders is related to their emotional intelligence (EI). However there is limited information on the awareness and utilization of EI by HRD practitioners. This study investigated the utilization of emotional intelligence concepts in the leadership/management development activities of organizations in the Kansas City metropolitan area. Five research questions were addressed in order to guide the acquisition of data needed to satisfy the requirements of the statement of the problem.

Theoretical Framework

Emotions influence jobs and lives. Emotion also impacts decisions, questions, instructions, and reactions. Today organization structures and cultures are changing rapidly in most businesses and industries because of the impact of high technology, globalization, political situations, and economic changes. The need for emotional intelligence in leadership development is more important than ever before. Cooper and Sawaf in emphasizing the value of emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations stated: "We are in the beginning stages of what many authorities believe will be the next revolution in business"(1997, p.xi).

The researcher established several parameters for this study, which may affect the application of the findings to other populations. The definition and components of EI under this study, as well as portions of the survey instrument were based on Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence. Goleman included competencies under two categories of personal competence and social competence. These competencies were self-awareness, self-regulation, self-management(handling emotions), social awareness(handling relationships), empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 1998).

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Methodology

This was a descriptive research study where a survey instrument was used to obtain data from HRD practitioners. The population for this study was members of the Kansas City Chapter of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) who were listed in the 2000-2001 Kansas City ASTD Membership Directory, and had selected leadership/management development as their specialty. It did not include individuals who joined after the directory was published or members whose address had changed. There were 148 members listed with this specialty. Since this population was small, all were included in this study.

Development of the Instrument

The survey instrument was based upon the review of literature. Each research question was addressed by a specific section of the survey instrument. Likert-type scales were used. A five points scale that ranged from "unaware" to "highly aware" was used to determine the awareness of emotional intelligence. A five point scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" was used to determine perceived benefits. A five points scale that ranged from "major emphasis" to "not applicable" was used to measure the emphasis put on emotional intelligence activities in leadership development.

Validation of the Instrument

A sample of HRD practitioners was used to examine the content and face validity of the survey instrument. They were urged to make suggestions to improve the instrument's format and how the items were written. This was done to enhance the survey instrument and therefore the validity of the study. A panel of experts consisting of the thesis committee also examined the survey instrument for face validity. To determine the reliability of the instrument during the pilot study, the survey instrument was administered to a sample of 22 HRD practitioners who were randomly selected from the Kansas City ASTD Chapter membership directory. Nine survey instruments were returned for a 41 percent return rate. The data from this pilot test were analyzed for the five parts of the survey instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for reliability for the sections of the survey instrument ranged from 0.8092 to 0.9394. According to these result there were no significant changes needed for reliability.

Survey Times Lines

The survey instrument along with a cover letter and postpaid envelope was sent to each member of the population. A second mailing was sent two weeks after the first mailing to all non-respondents. The researcher started processing the data that had been collected two weeks after the first mailing. The researcher stopped collecting and processing data that came in more than three weeks after the final mailing.

Processing of Data

As the data was gathered, the findings were entered in tables and figures and a narrative was developed to report the findings. The mean and standard deviation were determined for each item for the survey section' related to levels of understanding, perceived benefits, and emphasis put on EI.

Limitations

The researcher recognized that there were some factors outside of his control, which may limit the findings of this study. The researcher recognized the following limitations as being viable:

1. This study may be limited by the emphasis put on EI by the organization's philosophy toward leadership.
2. This study may be limited by the climate in the organization, which may influence the acceptance of EI principles.
3. This study may be limited by the knowledge and understanding of EI by the sample members. There are several different concepts including different competencies related to EI in HRD.

Results and Findings

A summary of the research study findings follow related to each of this study's research questions. Conclusions are then given for each research question.

Research Question 1

What is the perceived knowledge level about Emotional Intelligence of members of the Kansas City ASTD Chapter who have a specialty in leadership/management development? Of the 53 respondents, 12 (22.6%) indicated that they did not know the meaning of emotional intelligence. These individuals may have never heard of the concept of emotional intelligence, or they may have heard of EI but did not understand the concept.

Table 1. *Respondents Understanding of Emotional Intelligence (n=41)*

Competencies	Mean	Std. Deviation
Developing empathy for others	4.33	0.865
Managing emotions	4.26	0.819
Self-awareness	4.19	0.879
Handling relationships	4.19	0.852
Motivating oneself	4.12	0.905
Social skills	4.12	0.878
Self-regulation	3.95	1.068
Summated values	**4.16**	**0.777**

NOTE: 1= unaware, 5= highly aware

The second section of the survey asked respondents who knew the meaning of emotional intelligence how well they understood the components of emotional intelligence. Data in Table 1 indicates that respondents were the most aware of developing empathy for others ($\underline{M}$ = 4.33, $\underline{SD}$ = 0865) and self-regulation the least ($\underline{M}$ = 3.95, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.068). Respondents understood managing emotion ($\underline{M}$ = 4.26, $\underline{SD}$ = 0.819) more than self-awareness and handling relationships. The summated mean of 4.16 ($\underline{SD}$ = 0.777) indicates that overall respondents who were familiar with emotional intelligence clearly understood and tended to be aware to highly aware of the seven components of emotional intelligence as identified by Goleman.

Research Question 2

How aware are managers about Emotional Intelligence, as perceived by HRD practitioners? The third question on the survey asked the respondents how well the manager in their organization understood the components of emotional intelligence. Data indicates that respondents perceived that managers understood motivating oneself best ($\underline{M}$ = 3.28, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.031) while developing empathy for others the least ($\underline{M}$ = 2.72, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.202).

Table 2. *Perceptions of Managers Understanding of Emotional Intelligence (n=41)*

Competencies	Mean	Std. Deviation
Motivating oneself	3.28	1.031
Social skills	3.18	1.075
Managing emotions	3.07	0.986
Self-regulation	3.00	1.134
Handling relationships	3.00	1.024
Self-awareness	2.84	1.022
Developing empathy for others	2.72	1.202
Summated values	**3.01**	**0.901**

NOTE: 1= unaware, 5= highly aware

The summated mean of 3.01 ($\underline{SD}$ = 0.901) indicates that overall respondents perceived that managers in their organizations were only somewhat aware and did not clearly understood the seven components of emotional

intelligence. The literature indicated that understanding of emotional intelligence concepts has a major impact on individual performance and organization productivity. Church and Waclawski also stated managerial self-awareness (MSA) is the ability to reacts and reflects accurately related to one's own feeling, behaviors, and skills associated with workplace interaction (Church and Waclawki, 1999). Cherniss explains that self-awareness is essential for business and professions success. She pointed out evidence that showed the most successful performers deeply understand and know how to express their feeling when making important decisions (Cherniss, 2000). HRD Practitioners in this study perceived that managers self-awareness was one of the lowest of the EI competencies (M = 2.84, SD = 1.022). If managers are low in self-awareness, the organization may not be receiving the full benefits of emotional intelligence given in the literature.

Research Question 3

What do these HRD practitioners perceive as being the major benefits of the use of EI competencies in their organizat More successful relationships with coworkers (M = 4.49, SD = 0.506) was the highest perceived benefit of EI, while managers with loyalty to their employer (M = 3.17, SD = 0.881) was perceived as the lowest rated benefit. The summated mean of 4.06 (SD = 0.491) indicates that overall respondent's agreed to strongly agreed with the perceived benefits of emphasizing emotional intelligence, as given in the review of literature by Cherniss, Cooper and Sawaf. Goleman contends that leaders who have control over their emotions are more likely to resolve conflicts.

Table 3. *Perceptions of the Benefits of Emphasizing Emotional Intelligence (n=41)*

Benefits	M	SD
Managers with a high EI tend to have more successful relationships with coworkers.	4.49	0.506
Managers with a high EI tend to be more empathetic to co-workers.	4.45	0.503
Managers with high EI tend to have better leadership skills.	4.45	0.629
Managers with a high EI are usually better resolving conflict.	4.38	0.691
Managers with a high EI tend to control their emotions better.	4.33	0.650
Managers with high EI usually make better decisions.	4.31	0.680
Managers with a high EI tend to handle stress better.	4.24	0.790
Managers with a high EI tend to react appropriately to crisis situations.	4.20	0.552
Managers with a high EI tend to be better at adapting change.	4.14	0.861
Managers with a high EI seem to have more self-esteem than their peers.	4.12	0.772
Managers with a high EI seem to have more satisfying personal lives.	4.12	0.931
Managers with a high EI tend to have more self-confidence.	4.07	0.778
Managers with a high EI tend to be better at handling change.	3.98	0.963
Managers with high EI are usually more self-motivated.	3.98	0.841
Managers with a high EI are usually more satisfied with their careers.	3.86	1.049
Most managers are able to significantly raise their EI.	3.37	0.829
Managers with a high EI tend to be more innovative.	3.36	0.906
Managers with a high EI are usually more loyal to their employer.	3.17	0.881
Summated values	**4.06**	**0.491**

NOTE: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

One important finding of this study which conflicted with the literature is the data that showed respondents were uncertain if most managers are able to significantly raise their EI (M = 3.37, SD = 0.829). The literature indicated that emotional intelligence is improved as people age and gain experience and knowledge (Goleman, 1998). Cooper and Sawaf believed people can develop their emotional intelligence. When facing change and challenge, emotional fitness will function and balance the emotional and mental adaptability to handle stress and problems more wisely and more openly (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997). A significant study over developing emotional intelligence in leadership shows that emotional intelligence is developed best at the adult age by focusing on performance, culture diversity and organization change (Hay Group, 1999).

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The researcher questioned this perception of the HRD practitioners in this study, whether managers can raise their level of emotional intelligence? What will be the affects in their training programs to improve their people if the HRD practitioners believe that people's EI cannot be imp roved?

Overall emotional intelligence was perceived to benefit individual performance and organization productivity. These results imply to HRD practitioners how emotional intelligence functions and are correlated to the development of training programs such as management and leadership development, coaching, intervention process, strategic planning, communication, and effective teamwork.

Research Question 4

How much emphasis is put on the core EI competencies by HRD practitioners in leadership/management development activities? Data indicates that respondents put the most emphasis on handling relationships (M = 3.13, SD = 0.812) and put the least emphasized on social skill (M = 2.61, SD = 0.891) in leadership development activities. The summated mean of 2.84 (SD = 0.738) indicates that overall respondents emphasized emotional intelligence in leadership development activities

Data from Table I indicate that most respondents were very aware of the emotional intelligence concepts but Table IV indicates they did not put a major emphasis on it in their jobs. Emotional intelligence had not been emphasized widely in human resource development before the mid 1990. Earlier work had been more in education. Therefore, the researcher was not able to locate studies that showed were much it has been incorporated into human resource development programs.

Table 4. *Emphasis on Emotional Intelligence in Leadership Development Activities (n = 41)*

Competencies	Mean	Std. Deviation
Handling relationships.	3.13	0.812
Self-awareness.	2.93	0.959
Motivating oneself.	2.93	0.933
Developing empathy for others.	2.80	0.912
Self-regulation.	2.75	0.954
Managing emotions.	2.74	1.049
Social skills.	2.61	0.891
Summated values	**2.84**	**0.738**

NOTE: 4 = Major Emphasis, 3 = Emphasized, 2 = Little Emphasis, 1 = No Emphasis.

In general respondents tended to put more emphasis on those components of EI where they perceived managers having the lowest understanding (Table II). The most emphasis was placed on handling relationships, which has a lower mean rating in Table II. Lower emphasis was reported on social skill, and managing emotions which had higher means in Table II. Respondents reported lower perceived benefits of emphasizing emotional intelligence in leadership development activities as shown in Table III. Most respondents emphasized developing relationships with others rather than on managing and improving their own skill in leadership development activities.

Robert W. Allen, Goleman, and Gerald Grinstein state leadership is the emotionally perception, and source of power in the organization. Goleman also stated that leadership styles are related to emotional intelligence and organizational effectiveness, the visionary leaders are empathetic and have a strong level of self-confidence, important for change (Goleman, 2000). "Covey suggests the way in which leaders conduct themselves in the face of complexity, whether wise of foolishly, is based largely on the leader's knowledge of emotional management and ability of effectively manage him or herself" (Lorie, J, 1997, p.193).

Emotional intelligence is related to mangers' personality and leadership style as well as the organization's culture. Therefore, even thought EI is emphasized in leadership and management classes, it may take time to get managers to change their leadership style resulting in a change in the organizational culture. Integrating the concepts of EI into an organization must be thought of as a long term HRD goal. This will include other interventions besides training such as changes in selection, performance appraisal, and rewards that emphasize EI concepts.

Research Question 5

How much emphasis do these practitioners perceive is being put on the application of EI competencies by their organiza tion? Data indicates that respondent's were perceived to put the most emphasis on promoting line

employees to supervisor (M = 2.35, SD =0.907) and the least emphasis on promoting managers (M = 2.08, SD = 0.870). Overall respondents put more emphasis on emo tional intelligence in their organization when promoting line employees to supervisor and selecting new employees than when selecting and promoting managers, professional staff, sales and marketing, management teams, and supervisors.

Table 5. *Perception of the Emphasis of Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (n=41)*

Organizational Activities	Mean	Std. Deviation
When promoting line employees to supervisor.	2.39	0.907
When selecting new employees.	2.36	0.873
When conducting performance evaluation.	2.33	0.829
When selecting professional staff.	2.31	0.800
When selecting sales and marketing personal.	2.30	0.969
When hiring outside for management positions.	2.23	0.931
When selecting management teams.	2.15	0.875
When selecting managers for advanced education.	2.13	0.935
When reorganizing functions in department.	2.13	0.978
When selecting managers for special projects.	2.13	0.833
When promoting managers.	2.08	0.870
By top management in your organization.	1.98	0.947
Summated values	**2.20**	**0.723**

NOTE: 4 = Major Emphasis, 3 = Emphasized, 2 = Little Emphasis, 1 = No Emphasis.

Respondents perceived that top management in their organization put little emphasis on emotional intelligence (M = 1.98, SD = 0.947). This suggests that top management in most organization are not using emotional intelligence in their leadership and management. Most of the literature reported that emotional intelligence is one of the most essential factors that predicts success in individual work performance and organization productivity.

The low mean scores for all activities surprised the researcher. This may be related to the perceptions of the manager's understanding of emotional intelligence, as shown in Table II. The respondent's perceived that managers were somewhat aware of the emotional intelligence concepts (M = 3.01, SD = 0.901) while the utilization of the emotional intelligence concepts in their organizations were very limited with little emphasis from managers, executives, and top management in the organization.

According to the literature, emotional intelligence has a major impact on management and leadership development that predicts success and organization's productivity. Goleman states that emotional intelligence theories can help explain and give a clear reason why so many people who are abrasive, thoughtless, and otherwise interpersonally inept are in so many positions of power in organization (Goleman, 1998). Cooper and Sawaf, in emphasizing the value of emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations, stated, "We are in the beginning stages of what many authorities believe will be the next revolution in business"(Cooper and Sawaf, 1997, p.xi). Dulewicz and Higgs stated that emotional intelligence accounted for 36 percent of the variance in organizational advancement while IQ accounted for only 27 percent and Management Quotient (MQ) account 16 percent of the variance. Their study showed that emotional intelligence was more essential to career advancement then IQ (Dulewicz and Higgs, 1997). A study of managerial success at AT&T Company provides a good example of self-confidence as a major predictor of career success, effective performer, and organization productivity (Boyatzis, 1999, Cherniss, 2000).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Of the 53 respondents, 12(22.6%) indicated they did not know what was meant by emotional intelligence. Data indicated that the other 41 HRD practitioners felt they have a fairly high awareness of emotional intelligence. Respondents perceived the managers in their organizations were only somewhat aware and did not clearly understood the seven components of emotional intelligence. Overall, respondent's agreed with the perceived benefits of emphasizing emotional intelligence derived from the literature review. Data indicated that overall emotional intelligence was emphasized in leadership development activities and the respondents put the most emphasis on handling relationships in leadership development activities. Respondents indicated little emphasis was placed on emotional intelligence in their organizations and by top management.

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Emotional intelligence is reported in the literature as one of the essential ingredients in business, industry and academic work that predicts success in individual work performance and organizational productivity. Goleman stated that emotional intelligence theories can help explain the leadership failures of many people in positions of power in organization who are abrasive, thoughtless, and otherwise interpersonally inept (Goleman, 1998). Integrating the concepts of EI into an organization must be thought of as a long term HRD goal. Limited literature is available over the awareness and the utilization of EI theories among HRD practitioners, so HRD practitioners need to focus on both future EI research and practice. After reviewing the related literature, and analyzing the results of this study, the following recommendations for practice were made:

1) Human resources and management professional organizations should emphasize EI more, since over 20 percent of respondents were unaware of the meaning of EI. HRD practitioners need to interact more with other fields related to EI theory and research such as psychology, sociology, and management.

2) HRD practitioners may need more education and research related to the utilization of EI. HRD practitioners first need to believe that people's EI can be improved with effective training programs and organizational and performance development interventions. They must also be highly aware of the impact of EI on their jobs.

3) HRD practitioners may need to focus more on emotional intelligence in leadership development and management development. They should provide education and training in the utilization of knowledge, skill, strategy, and behaviors associated with emotional intelligence concepts. Even though most respondents indicated they emphasized EI, their perceptions are that these concepts are not being utilized strongly by the managers and top management in their organizations.

4) HRD practitioners may need to involve others in human resources in promoting the use of EI in activities such as selection, promotion, and performance appraisals. Respondents perceived that EI received little emphasis in these human resource activities in their organizations.

5) Top management need to promote emotional intelligence so it is implemented in all organizational levels. Respondent's perceptions were that top management put little emphasis on emotional intelligence. More emphasis should help adapt to change, manage conflict and stress, build positive relationships, and allow them to utilize their emotional intelligence to inspire, influence, coach and persuade others.

After reviewing the related literature and research and analyzing the results of this study, the following recommendations were made for future research and study in EI:

1) Future study of emotional intelligence in management and leadership development should involve larger populations so results can be generalized to other populations. It should directly survey managers and leaders.

2) Future study should interview HRD practitioners and managers about their understanding of emotional intelligence and their utilization. This would provide more detailed information than survey perceptions.

3) Future study should identify and measure how using EI affects important business operations and results such as productivity and return on investment. This information should help persuade managers of EI benefits.

4) Future study should put more emphasis on the theory of individual performance and organization productivity by applying the concept of emotional intelligence to jobs and the design of effective training programs.

5) Future study should emphasize how HRD and OD practitioners can design and develop programs for the utilization of emotional intelligence to improve their knowledge, skills, and capacity. Survey data indicated that HRD respondents did not strongly utilize the emotional intelligence in their jobs, and they perceived managers in their organization did not utilize the concepts either.

Contributions to HRD

Findings of this study should be important to the HRD practitioner, manager, and CEO in the organization. Emotional Intelligence is an essential ingredient for business efficiency and success. This study helped identify the EI competencies that help managers and leaders build personal and interpersonal strength and improve skills to balance and manage their emotions appropriately in order to adapt more sustained change throughout the organization. This should help their organizations in the competitive world market place of today and in the future.

This research describes how one sample of HRD practitioners understand, emphasize, and utilizing the concept of emotional intelligence associated with leadership/management development. The benefits of emotional intelligence can have a strong impact when applying the theories of individual performance and organization productivity to jobs and the design of effective training programs. The emotional intelligence concept influence HRD and OD intervention plans and strategies such as selection, promotion, force field analysis, coaching, reengineering, leadership/management development and performance appraisal.

This study adds to the limited emotional intelligence research associated with the awareness and utilization by HRD practitioners. Emotional intelligence theory should be one of the essential considerations for HRD practitioners when designing training programs, developing people's knowledge, skills, and work performance, and when coaching and implementing change.

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Moving HRD Beyond "Paint by Numbers": Aesthetic Epistemology and Arts-Based Learning in Management Education

Nick Nissley
University of St. Thomas

This manuscript seeks to describe an emerging phenomenon in management education – how aesthetic epistemology (aesthetic ways of knowing), or arts-based learning is informing the practice of management education. It provides a literature review and examples of how arts-based learning is being practiced in management education – framed by the art forms of music (e.g., blues, jazz, and orchestra), drama (e.g., theater and cinema), literature (e.g., novels and poetry), and visual arts.

Keywords: Management Education, Arts-Based Learning, Organizational Aesthetics

This manuscript serves to recognize those management educators who are rethinking the traditional logico-rational paradigm (way of knowing) that presently frames much of management education. It does not seek to suggest that aesthetic epistemology (aesthetic ways of knowing) or arts-based learning can, or should, replace any of the more conventional practices of management education. Mindful of multiple ways of knowing this manuscript seeks to identify arts-based learning as a valuable adjunct to the current dominant pedagogy of management education.

In this manuscript, the term "arts-based learning" is used to broadly refer to ways that "the arts" are being introduced into management education. Elsewhere the term "aesthetic epistemology" (Nissley, 1999a) has been used to refer to aesthetic ways of knowing. And, similarly, others have sought to describe this phenomenon that is here referred to as arts-based learning, calling it: "aesthetic modes of knowing" (Reimer & Smith, 1992, p. 23), "arts based training" (Arts & Business, 2001), "art as a way of knowing" (Greene, 1995), "expressive arts consulting and education" (California Institute of Integral Studies, 2001), or "creative learning" (Vaill, 1996).

Aesthetic Epistemology and Management Education

In the broader context of organizational studies, Barrett (2000, p. 229), recognizing the short comings of the dominant logico-rational paradigm, asks, "If rational ways of knowing are inadequate, are there any alternatives?" Similarly, and more specific to the field of management education, Alvarez & Merchán (1992) assert that the act of management requires the use of several types of knowledge. This manuscript is an examination of one type of "other" knowledge – aesthetic epistemology and its application in management education.

Within the interdisciplinary field of organizational studies, organizational aesthetics is an emerging sub-specialty (e.g., Strati, 1992, 1999; Linstead & Höpfl, 2000). Generally speaking, organizational aesthetics provides us with an aesthetic way of understanding organizational life. This manuscript more specifically discusses arts-based learning in organizations – how artful ways of knowing are being practiced in organizations. While a recent issue of the Society for Organization Learning's journal, *Reflections* (2001), was dedicated to "The Arts in Business and Society," it provided a more limited understanding of arts-based learning in organizations.

Within the discipline of management, there are examples of the use of aesthetic epistemology to frame understanding within the sub-disciplines of: *accounting* (Chua & Degeling, 1993), *business ethics* (Brady, 1986; McAdams & Koppensteiner, 1992),*marketing* (Schmitt & Simonson, 1997), *product design* (Gelernter, 1999), leadership (Palus & Horth, 1996, 1998, 2001), *organization design* (Hatch, 1999), *organization development* (Ramsey, 1996, 1997; De Ciantis, 1995), and *career management* (Albion, 2001;Whyte, 2001)including management (Vaill, 1989).

Yet, our understanding of aesthetic ways of knowing in the field of management education has been examined only little outside of metaphorical conceptualizations of "the art of good teaching" in management education (*Journal of Management Education*, Special Issue: The Art of Good Teaching, 1997) and Bilimoria's (1999) pondering, of what "if management schools focused on helping students gain facility in harnessing aesthetic and evocative aspects to the same degree as developing technical and administrative knowledge and skills" (p. 466).

While the "art of" metaphor can readily be found in the titles of books and articles that seek to educate managers, this manuscript moves beyond the metaphorical conceptualization of "the art of management" to also consider how managers are engaging with the arts, and not just thinking about them. Within this approach, examples

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of both *art-perceiving* (e.g., watching a play, reading a novel, viewing a corporate art collection) and *art-making* (company-sponsored and self-initiated) are provided within the practice of management education. This manuscript focuses on the company-sponsored type (e.g., formal management education) versus the self-initiated or self-directed type of arts-based learning noted in Taninecz (1996). Taninecz describes a growing number of "executives who satisfy a need far removed from the mental and physical constraints of corporate corridors," noting "these whitecollar sculptors, painters, and poets – in addition to satisfying a need to express themselves – believe that creative pursuits can enhance leadership capabilities and management acumen" (p. 111). This manuscript seeks to describe, through a literature review and examples, how aesthetic epistemology (aesthetic ways of knowing), or arts-based learning is informing the theory and practice of management education.

The Art of Management Education

Here we turn our attention to examples of how arts-based learning is being used in the education and development of managers at work. This section provides a literature review and examples of how arts-based learning is being practiced in the management education classroom – framed by the art forms of music (e.g., blues, jazz, and orchestra), drama (e.g., theater and cinema), literature (e.g., novels and poetry), and visual arts. Next, we'll begin by "tuning-in" to how the musical arts are being engaged in management education.

Musical Arts

There are a growing number of references in the management and organizational studies literature that explore the music-organization relationship, such as Pogacnik's (1999) connection between music and listening, Hawkins' (1998) connection between music and dialogue, and Jones & Shibley's (1999) discussion of the "practice culture" of musicians and the "performance culture" of organizations – asserting that each has a lot to learn from the other. Examples of how the musical arts are being engaged by management education include the musical arts of jazz, orchestra, and blues, as well as other musical forms – including drumming circles.

Jazz. The jazz metaphor has been extensively covered in the organization and management studies literature (e.g., *Organization Science* (1998) – special issue on jazz improvisation and organizing). Practitioners have joined academic theorists, seeking to make sense of jazz as a metaphor for organizational life. For example, Jazz Impact (2001) engages organizations with jazz music – as an arts-based learning approach to management education.

Orchestra. Mintzberg (1998) and Atik (1994), for example, examine the orchestra conductor as a metaphor for organizational leadership. Similar to "Jazz Impact," mentioned above, practitioners have joined academic theorists, seeking to make sense of the orchestra as a metaphor for organizational life. For example, the musicians of Orpheus (2001), the conductor-less orchestra, have entered conversations with business organizations that seek to learn how the Orpheus orchestra's way of creating music may serve as a model for their own organization. Harvey Seifter, the Executive Director of the Orpheus Chamber Orchestra, along with Peter Economy (2001) have co-authored a book about the "Orpheus Process" – how the Orpheus model of organizing may help other organizations re-create this model of collaborative leadership. In addition, "The Music Paradigm" (2001) brings business organizations together with orchestra musicians, as the business organization seeks to learn different ways to "look at" organizational life.

Blues. Beyond the orchestra pit, yet similar to "The Music Paradigm," "Face the Music" (2001), a hybrid of organization development consultants and blues musicians work with organizations – actually creating blues music and exploring the "down-side" of organizational life (Muoio, 2000). Mitch Ditkoff (Face the Music, n.d.), founder of "Face the Music," explains how they use blues music as a means of arts-based learning in organizations:

> Most people who work in a corporation are usually experiencing some form of the "blues" – a mixed bag of complaints, gripes, and grumbles that become a kind of low-grade virus on the job ... At the turn of the century, when field workers and share croppers had the blues, their response was basic and soulful. They sang it. And, that quite simply, was the beginning of their change process. In fact, that's how all change begins. By somebody "telling it like it is" – from the heart – in a way that can be heard. In most corporations, however, there are very few opportunities for people to do this.

"Face the Music" facilitates managers in writing and singing the blues – about workplace life – so, change may be realized.

Percussive. Similar to "Face the Music," who use blues music as an arts-based learning approach to management education, *Fast Company* (Pratt, 2000) has noted a growing interest in using drumming and other percussive instruments as another musical approach to arts-based learning in organizations. A number of musicians are bridging the worlds of music and organization, consulting to corporate clients (e.g., One World Music, 2000). These consulting musicians assist organizations with team-building, collaboration, creativity, and diversity training – through making a connection to musical metaphors such as rhythm and tempo.

Drama Arts (Theater and Cinema)

The use of drama, including stage performance (theater) and screen performance (cinema), as a means of management education, is also growing beyond the metaphorical. This is evidenced by the emerging acceptance of drama within the practice of formal management education within academia as well as the growth of consultants engaging in theater-based training within businesses. Similarly, many references exist discussing the use of film as a general resource for management education. Consider the following examples from stage performance (theater) and screen performance (cinema), which show how these two dramatic forms are being engaged as a means of arts-based learning in management education.

Theater. Within the halls of academia, at the 1998 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Steven Taylor (2000) presented straight fiction – a play, *Capitalist Pigs*. Taylor followed this up with another play, *Soft Targets*, presented at the 2001 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management. Similarly, Barry Oshry (2001) has recently written and had performed, a three-act play, that theatrically presents his ideas about power and organizational systems (Power and Systems, 2001). In addition, popular business literature is emerging, such as these books dedicated to what Shakespearean drama may teach us about management: Whitney & Packer (2000), Shafritz (1999), Augustine & Adelman (1999), Corrigan (1999), and Burnham, Augustine, & Adelman (2001). Finally, there is a growing number of consultants engaging in theater-based training (e.g., Harvard Management Update, 1999; Houden, 1997), including scripted stage performances (e.g., Theatre at Work, 2001) as well as unscripted improvisational theater (e.g., Pacific Playback, 2001; Barton, 2000). Within work organizations we are witnessing the development of "organizational theater," which (Schreyögg, 2001), defines as tailor-made plays staged for a specific organization, often dramatizing critical problems of work life. He notes that in 1997, over 2000 organizational theater performances were conducted in France, and 200 in German organizations. Even the venerable Globe Theatre has teamed up with Cranfield University's School of Management (Praxis: The Centre for Developing Personal Effectiveness, 2001), creating an arts-based learning collaboration.

Cinema. Many references exist which discuss the use of film as a general resource for management education (e.g., Carley, 1999; Champoux, 1999a), as well as addressing specific areas, such as organizational behavior and management theories and concepts (Champoux, 2000a; 2000b), business ethics (Gerde, Shepard, & Goldsby, 1996; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2001) and leadership (Wolff & Clemens, 1999). Champoux (1999b) has even considered the specific genre of animated films as a teaching resource for the management educator.

Literary Arts

Beyond the current management education fad of "Shakespeare on ..." (e.g., Whitney & Packer, 2000; Shafritz, 1999; Augustine & Adelman, 1999; Corrigan, 1999; Burnham, Augustine, & Adelman, 2001), there has been a serious growth of fiction as a popular genre of literary art within the organizational studies and management education classroom (e.g., Czarniawska-Joerges & Guillet de Monthoux, 1994; Brawer, 1998; Knights & Wilmott, 1999; Mayer & Clemens, 1999). Some specialized attention has been focused on the use of fiction in teaching ethics in management education (e.g., Kennedy & Lawton, 1992; McAdams & Koppensteiner, 1992). Czarniawska (1999) even proposes the fiction literature genre of the detective story as helpful in understanding management work, and similarly Parker, Higgins, Lightfoot, & Smith (2001) propose that science fiction may enrich our understanding of organizational life. In addition to detective stories and science fiction, the comic genre is also being used in management education (e.g., Telescope Comics, 2001). Poetry has also become a popular genre of literary art in the management education classroom (e.g., Whyte, 1994, 2001; Windle, 1994; Autry, 1994, 1996).

There even exist resources to assist the management educator who wants to integrate literary art (and cinema art) into his/her classroom. For example, The Hartwick Humanities in Management Institute at Hartwick College (USA) provides university faculty with cases (22 film cases and 57 literature cases) to enhance management and leadership education. This aesthetic way of knowing is described by Hartwick as: "Transforming great texts and films into unforgettable management and leadership lessons" (Hartwick Humanities in Management Institute, n.d.).

Visual Arts

This section focuses on the use of visual arts in learning interventions. Consideration of other forums for engaging with visual arts in management education (e.g., corporate art, museums, etc.) is addressed by the author in *Rethinking Management Education* (Nissley, 2002). The general training and development literature has recently spoken to the potential value of visual art in facilitating learning in organizations (e.g., Simmons, 1999; Cohen & Jurkovic, 1997). Consider the following examples.

First, Marjory Parker (1990) describes an application of arts-based learning intervention in the workplace. She focuses on a process of arts-based learning of the organization's vision and values, at Europe's largest producer of aluminum, Norway's Hydro Aluminum Karmøy Fabrikker. In *Creating Shared Vision: The Story of a Pioneer Approach to Organizational Revitalization*, Parker, the organizational consultant who helped them through the strategic visioning process, describes why pictures really are worth a thousand words. The final vision statement was co-created by nearly every employee, over a two-year period. It was not a piece of writing at all, but an extraordinary mural of a flourishing garden, in which every plant and element embodied rich metaphorical meaning.

Second, Sims & Doyle (1995) describe an arts-based learning technique, called cognitive sculpting, a "technique for helping managers to talk through and develop their view of difficult and complex issues, which are given expression by arranging a collection of objects, some of them symbolically rich, in an arrangement or sculpture" (Sims & Doyle, 1995, p. 117). And third, Nissley & Jusela (2001b) describe a similar arts-based learning technique and its use by managers in a knowledge creation process. Similar to the cognitive sculpting technique and the process described by Nissley & Jusela, Barry (1996) provides an example of his work with Kinetic Family Drawing technique to better understand management and organizational life.

Fourth, De Ciantis (1995) also describes a training technique (Touchstone), employed at the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL), that uses art to help people develop as leaders. It is designed upon an exploration of artistic modes of inquiry. This learning exercise incorporates visual art, including sculpting, and drama performance. The technique is used by CCL in a program, "Leading Creatively," that defines a set of "aesthetic competencies" for leadership. Palus & Horth (1998, 2001) note that their work in the "Leading Creatively" program has lead them to find two sets of competencies necessary to lead creatively: rational skills and the often neglected aesthetic competencies.

Fifth, there is an emerging specialty within facilitation, referred to as "visual practitioners" – facilitators who capture ideas and synthesize conversations on large paper, creating a colorful mural from words and images. There are diverse styles, and practitioners have coined many names to identify and differentiate their work: graphic recording, graphic facilitation, reflective graphics, mindscaping, visual thinking, information architects, visual synthesis, graphic translation, group graphics, and ideation specialists (see the International Forum of Visual Practitioners Web Site: http://www.hnl-consulting.com/ifvp.html).

Conclusion

The examples provided in this manuscript suggest that the use of aesthetic ways of knowing or arts-based learning has begun to grow, since Barnard (1940, p. xiv) called for managers to engage the aesthetic dimension of organizational life. Today there exists an emerging *theory* base within the interdisciplinary field of organizational studies and the growing sub-specialty of organizational aesthetics (e.g., Strati, 1999, 1992; Linstead & Höpfl, 2000). In addition, there is growing recognition of the *practice* of arts-based learning in organizations – the actual *doing* of arts-based learning in management education. Today, there is also a growing recognition for the need to adequately train arts-based learning practitioners. In the US, the California Institute of Integral Studies has recently announced a post-baccalaureate certificate program in "Expressive Arts Consulting and Education" (California Institute of Integral Studies, 2001), and in Europe, Arts & Business's Creative Forum has been presenting training for the arts-based trainer since 1998 (Arts & Business, 2001).

It should be noted that the growth in arts-based learning in management education is not confined to the United States. Many of the examples noted in this manuscript are from the United Kingdom (e.g., Sims & Doyle, 1994; Praxis:

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The Centre for Developing Personal Effectiveness, 2001), as well as Australia (e.g., Brearley, 2000), and New Zealand (e.g., Barry, 1994, 1996). In addition, the heavily European-influenced (e.g., Strati, Linstead, Höpfl) theoretical base of organizational aesthetics continues to inform the practice of arts-based learning. Thus, this does not appear to be a US-centered phenomenon, with examples found throughout Europe and Australia/New Zealand. As sharing and documentation of arts-based learning practices continues, we will likely find that arts-based learning is not the domain of one national culture; but instead, we will find that arts-based learning allows us to cross the boundaries of nations and cultures.

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